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THE TEACHERS COLLEGE JOURNAL

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A Partial Study of Extracurricular Activities in Indiana High Schools in 1929-1930

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THE PROBLEM. In order to secure a clearer picture of extracurricular activities in Indiana high schools in 1929-1930, this partial study was undertaken. Since extracurricular activities constitute a most challenging problem to every secondary teacher and executive, this study also offered an opportunity to secure the reaction of high school principals in regard to the specific objective or objectives of secondary education that each activity was expected to achieve.

SOURCE OF DATA. A questionnaire was sent to 325 high school principals whose names appeared in the Indiana School Directory, 1928-1929. Returns were received from 152 principals, but only 149 replies were used in this study. Some replies were complete; others were meager. On the whole, the attitude of the principals was cooperative. Only one principal refused to answer because the questionnaire method had caused

him "to throw up his hands and run for cover," and one replied that he had no extracurricular program.

Using the same classification as the Directory of 1928-1929, this study includes eighteen junior high schools, eighty six-six and township high schools, and fifty-one town and city high schools. It includes practically all the recognized junior high schools, several large city high schools, as well as progressive six-six and township high schools. With the exception of the southeast quarter of the state, the replies are distributed over the entire state, the greatest number coming from the northern half of Indiana.

METHOD OF THE STUDY. The questionnaire was formulated after much discussion. Dr. J. R. Shannon, professor of education at Indiana State Teachers College, offered construc-

¹The work of collecting and tabulating the data for this study was done by Nola A. Smith and Clarence E. Hassec, graduate students at Indiana State Teachers College.

tive suggestions which were incorporated in the final form. No attempt was made to define the term extracurricular activities; an understanding of the term was assumed. In so far as possible, tabular presentation of data has been used. Wherever there was danger of submerging variations in generalizations, supplementary material has been added. All data received have been organized around these basic problems: 1. Types of activities; 2. Objectives of

written and talked about for several years. Just why replies were not received from more than 152 schools is not known. Perhaps, silence indicates a broad program which this study cannot reveal because the number is inadequate in view of the more than 800 high schools entered in the last Indiana State High School Basketball Tournament.

Tables do not reveal the individuality of each school. Hence, this study is a partial picture which per-

TABLE I
OCCURRENCE OF TYPES OF EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

Activity	Number of Cases			
	Jr. H. S.	6-6, Twp.	City, Town	Total
Home Room	12	28	27	67
Student Council	7	20	25	52
Assembly	16	58	32	106
Clubs	16	66	39	121
Dramatics	18	45	33	96
Musical Organizations	20	79	36	135
Literary Activities	11	30	25	66
Student Participation in School Management	13	66	33	112
Physical Education	20	77	37	134
Trips and Excursions	14	40	24	78
Publications	13	57	35	105
Honor Societies	4	30	27	61
Banks and Thrift	12	10	17	39
Religious Activities	10	28	27	65

secondary education; 3. Stimulation of participation; 4. Limitation of participation; 5. Time in daily schedule; 6. Credit; 7. Sponsorship; and, 8. Direction of finances.

LIMITATIONS. The questionnaire was misinterpreted in several places, particularly regarding physical education, which was taken to mean curricular physical education and not athletic competition either intramural or extra-mural.

Overlapping of co-curricular, curricular, and extracurricular concepts is evident. Meager replies almost cause one to assume that many principals do not have much understanding of a broad extracurricular program such as McKown, Foster, Fretwell, Myers, and others have

mits only tentative conclusions.

Data regarding student councils indicated they are not found in many schools, but several schools signified student councils will be organized. A few schools visited the state capital, the penal farm, and the city court. Science, civic, and vocational classes made trips most frequently. The greatest interest in thrift was shown in the junior high school.

Arcola has a radio—they listen regularly to the Ohio School of the Air; some form of visual education is provided once a week at Perry Central in Lebanon; Redkey has a literary contest sponsored by the W. C. T. U.; Bluffton included football, basketball, track, baseball, golf, and tennis under the miscellaneous sec-

tion, instead of under the physical education section; Goshen junior high school reported that as a guide they use the "Report of the Committee on Standards for Use in the Reorganization of Secondary School Curricula"—reprint from the North Central Association Quarterly, March, 1927-1929.

Unionville included inter-school athletics under miscellaneous activities; Morocco classified the athletic association under that heading; Bentonville listed basketball, volley ball, and tennis under this group; Brook placed basketball in this group; Goshen followed the standards set by the North Central Association Committee; one school gave this re-

ciples of education stressed most as objectives of an extracurricular program. The seven principles are stressed in the following order: 5, 6, 7, 4, 1, 3, and 2. Practically all the principals gave the objective of physical education as health or physical efficiency or both.

In spite of an attempt to eliminate overlapping, in so far as possible, these data show indefiniteness and haziness of educational objectives, overlapping of concepts, and difficulty on the part of principals in formulating specific fundamental objectives for the specific activities. Those who marked the questionnaires tried to do so in a sincere and honest manner (the number of erasures indicat-

TABLE II
OCCURRENCE OF THE SEVEN CARDINAL PRINCIPLES OF EDUCATION² AS OBJECTIVES IN EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

Activity	Number of Cases							Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Home Room	8	7	10	7	23	9	14	78
Student Council	0	0	3	5	33	3	3	47
Assembly	10	9	10	8	37	29	34	137
Clubs	17	16	18	23	36	39	34	183
Dramatics	6	11	6	6	18	42	18	107
Musical Organizations	1	7	28	16	15	76	24	167
Literary Activities	0	16	4	7	15	24	11	77
Student Participation in School Management	6	6	8	15	50	8	17	110
Physical Education	80	6	9	8	21	24	25	173
Trips and Excursions	2	6	4	19	16	9	3	59
Publications	3	17	4	35	31	22	13	125
Honor Societies	3	13	2	3	13	2	12	48
Banks and Thrift	0	5	9	11	16	1	4	46
Religious Activities	4	1	6	1	17	11	45	85
³ Miscellaneous	7	3	4	3	12	7	9	45
⁴ Others	3	1	1	1	2	2	1	11
Total	150	124	126	168	355	308	267	1498

ply to the entire questionnaire, "We do not have an extracurricular program. Our regular academic program takes up practically all our time."

Citizenship, worthy use of leisure time, and vocational efficiency are the ones of the seven cardinal prin-

ing thought), but there was still difficulty in eliminating overlapping.

²The seven cardinal principles of education are as follows: 1. Health; 2. Command of fundamental processes; 3. Worthy home membership; 4. Vocational efficiency; 5. Citizenship; 6. Worthy use of leisure; 7. Ethical character.

³Radio, conferences, visual education, social events, and sings are included under this section.

⁴Health, athletics, parent-teacher, and Sunshine Club are included under this section.

TABLE III
OCCURRENCE OF KINDS OF CLUBS

Clubs	Number of Cases			
	Jr. H. S.	6-6, Twp.	City, Town	Total
Hi-Y	3	14	15	32
Dramatic	2	12	9	23
Debating	0	2	9	11
Journalism	0	3	1	4
Junior Red Cross	2	1	0	3
Health	2	1	0	3
Calf	1	1	1	3
Glee	3	8	6	17
Sunshine	0	9	9	18
Athletic	3	8	3	14
4-H	1	7	1	9
Pig	0	2	1	3
Vocational	1	4	1	6
Camera	1	0	4	5
History	0	9	2	11
Literary	1	2	5	8
Music	1	0	0	1
Civic	1	0	0	1
Airplane	2	0	2	4
English	1	4	1	6
Hobby	0	2	0	2
Sewing	0	1	0	1
Inventors	0	0	1	1
Modeling	0	1	0	1
Spanish	0	1	0	1
French	0	3	9	12
Girl Reserve	7	7	5	19
Hiking	0	1	0	1
Library	0	1	0	1
Commercial	0	8	10	18
Latin	1	11	14	26
Booster	3	10	4	17
Agriculture	0	5	3	8
Home Economics	0	9	2	11
Science	3	6	10	19
Poultry	0	1	1	2
Corn	0	1	1	2
Art	2	0	7	9
Mathematics	0	0	4	4
Radio	0	0	2	2

Other clubs mentioned only once were: Lad and Dad, Sis and Mother, Audubon, Rainbow, Our Gang, Blue Tri, Nature, Campfire, and American Farmer. Many schools had too many clubs to list. One reply indicated fifty-four active clubs; another, "some forty or more." It is significant, perhaps, that the majority of the clubs listed in Table III are closely allied with some curricular field. One hundred and eighteen schools have clubs. Hobby Clubs, 4-H Clubs, and Sunshine Clubs seem to be increasing, especially in the six-six and township schools.

One hundred and thirty-five of the 149 schools reporting had some musical organization. Ninety-six schools fostered dramatic activities in some

form. Fifty-six schools had some form of literary activity. One hundred and five schools had publications of some sort. One hundred and thirty-four of the 149 schools indicated a physical education program, no discrimination being made in this case between curricular and extra-curricular. Sixty-five schools reported some type of religious activity—clubs; daily Bible reading and the repetition of the Lord's Prayer are required in the junior high school by the board of education of Michigan City; Goshen has prayer at the opening of school; Junior Central at La-Porte reported that their religious activities were connected with "character education." Sixty-one schools had some form of reward for scholas-

TABLE IV

SPECIFIC DETAILS REGARDING MUSIC, DRAMATICS, LITERARY ACTIVITIES, PUBLICATIONS, PHYSICAL EDUCATION, RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES, HONOR SOCIETIES, AND STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

Activity	Number of Cases			
	Jr. H. S.	6-6, Twp.	City, Town	Total
Music				
Band	9	22	26	57
Orchestra	16	67	27	110
Chorus	6	36	9	51
Glee	12	42	18	72
Opera	0	1	5	6
Quartet	0	6	2	8
Drum Corps	0	3	0	3
Dramatics				
Clubs	6	8	11	25
Class Plays	2	27	11	40
With Public Speaking	2	7	2	11
Literary Activities				
Clubs	5	11	7	23
Debating	2	15	11	28
Programs	1	3	1	5
Publications				
Paper	6	26	26	58
Annual	5	22	24	51
Notes in local paper	1	13	2	16
Physical Education				
Classes	11	47	15	73
Teams	7	29	7	43
Intra-mural	1	1	1	3
Religious				
Bible Class	1	3	5	9
Clubs	5	13	21	39
Convocations	3	14	3	20
Honor Societies				
Honor Rewards	1	13	2	16
Athletic	0	2	1	3
Academic	1	9	3	13
National	0	1	6	7
Student Participation in School Management				
Library	3	44	12	59
Traffic	6	17	10	33
Office	1	5	2	8
Assembly	1	3	0	4

tic success. Of the 149 systems, 112 schools had some kind of participation in routine school management, particularly in libraries and handling

schools, one used self-rating citizenship cards and one granted exemption from final examinations. Of the senior high schools in the cities and

TABLE V

MEANS OF STIMULATION OF PARTICIPATION

Means	Number of Cases			
	Jr. H. S.	6-6, Twp.	City, Town	Total
Guidance by sponsors and teachers through personal or group interviews	4	24	12	40
Use of some form of reward as credit, points, awards, et cetera		7	5	12
Compulsory membership in some activity	2	2	2	6
Activities solicit members	3		2	5
General encouragement growing out of class work, home room, assemblies, publications, et cetera	6	4	3	13
Left to pupil initiative		4	8	12

traffic.

Of the six-six and township

towns, one guided through cumulative personal records, another afford-

ed an opportunity to try many clubs before making a choice. In forty schools, participation was encourag-

One junior high school limited on the basis of mental and physical ability. Of the six-six and township

TABLE VI
MEANS OF LIMITATION OF PARTICIPATION

Means	Number of Cases			
	Jr. H. S.	6-6, Twp.	City, Town	Total
Those having no limitations	3	14	7	24
Limited on basis of scholarship and ability	6	37	20	62
Limited by use of point system		5	6	11
Limited to one activity	2			2
Limited to two activities	1	5	5	11
Limited to three activities	1	3	3	7
Limited by schedule arrangement	2	1	2	5

ed by means of personal and group interviews with the teachers or sponsors. Thirteen schools reported general encouragement growing out of class work, home room, assemblies,

high schools, one required grades to be above ninety; one required pupils to pass in three solids; one used vocational efficiency; and one used mental and physical age. Of the senior high

TABLE VII
TIME ALLOTTED EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES IN SCHEDULE

Time	Number of Cases			
	Jr. H. S.	6-6, Twp.	City, Town	Total
Activities in school hours	14	50	33	97
One period each day	9	39	27	75
Period in morning	4	22	12	38
Period in afternoon	2	7	12	21
No exact time given	3	10	3	16
Two periods each day	1	7	3	11
Period but once a week	4	4	3	11
Activities outside school hours	3	10	9	22

and publications. Twelve others had no form of encouragement, six had compulsory membership in some activity, and twelve schools offered a

schools, one school weighted activities as a basis of limitation, while two schools permitted all pupils to join one club. Ninety-eight schools re-

TABLE VIII
HOW CREDIT IS GIVEN FOR PARTICIPATION

How Given	Number of Cases			
	Jr. H. S.	6-6, Twp.	City, Town	Total
No credit given	8	24	21	53
Credit given	9	38	26	73
Use of point system		5	3	8
Credit in music	5	14	11	30
Credit in physical education	2	11	7	20
Credit for some club work, journalism, library work, debating, et cetera	2	4	3	9
Other forms		4	2	6

reward for participation in some activity.

ported the use of some form of limitation; twenty-four had no limita-

tions. The limitation was most frequently based on scholarship and ability—sixty-two gave this as the means used. Only eleven stated the use of a point system, while eleven others limited the membership to two activities.

One of the junior high schools listed rotating periods. Three of the

credit toward graduation; and one gave academic credit—amount limited. One town and city school gave credit in closely related subjects, the amount of credit ranging from one-tenth to one-half credit.

Of the junior high schools, one school grouped classes on basis of sex, two schools divided classes on

TABLE IX
SPONSORSHIP OF EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

Sponsorship	Number of Cases			
	Jr. H. S.	6-6, Twp.	City, Town	Total
Schools having sponsorship	18	66	47	131
Members of activities select their sponsors	2	19	8	29
Schools in which sponsors appointed by principal for training, ability, or interest	3	6	3	12
Schools in which sponsors appointed for no given reason by principal	6	6	18	30
Part of sponsors appointed, part elected			9	9
Method of selection not given	7	35	9	51

six-six and township schools had no regular period, two had part during school hours and part after school hours.

One junior high school gave credit in art, one gave grades, and another gave credit toward graduation. Of the six-six and township schools, one

basis of ability, one school had two sponsors for each class. Of the six-six and township schools four had two sponsors for each class, one had a man and a woman for each class, two had no regular system, and one principal reported that his "sponsors are all like policemen."

TABLE X
DIRECTION OF FINANCES

How Directed	Number of Cases			
	Jr. H. S.	6-6, Twp.	City, Town	Total
Each club cares for its own	10	19	11	40
Central fund for all activities	8	44	35	87
Under principal	2	23	9	34
Under general school treasurer	3	5	9	17
Under commercial teacher		3	3	6
Under teacher with student participation		6	1	7
Under school clerk		1	3	4
Under board of control	1	1	4	6
Other forms	1	6	3	10
Those having school bank			4	4

gave credit in accordance with other subjects; one gave credit above that needed for graduation; one gave

In the junior high school group one township paid the expenses; another had a faculty committee ap-

pointed by the principal to look after the finances. One six-six and township school had a high school budget fund and another used the efficiency accounting system of the Illiana Teachers Service. In the town and city group, one school had an extracurricular council; one had an activities committee consisting of superintendent, principal, music supervisor, athletic director, commercial teacher, and president of the senior class; another listed an activities committee.

responsibility for varied programs are held in two-thirds of the schools.

e. Clubs, numerous clubs, are a major part of every extracurricular program.

f. There is much interest in dramatics and public speaking, participation being determined by natural ability.

g. All schools are fostering orchestras, glee clubs, and bands.

h. More stress should be placed on creative literary activities similar to those of the Culver contest.

TABLE XI
PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF PRINCIPALS ANSWERING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

School Where Training Received ²	Number of Cases
Indiana University	19
Indiana State Teachers College	17
Ball State Teachers College	3
Butler University	3
Hanover College	3
Oakland City College	3
DePauw University	2
Franklin College	2
Wabash College	2
Purdue University	2
Valparaiso University	1
Manchester College	1
Marion College	1
Earlham College	1
Central Normal College	1
Out of State Colleges	8
No data given	80
Total	149

TENTATIVE CONCLUSIONS

1. Types of activities and educational objectives.

a. Principals have vague concepts of the educational objectives to be achieved through extracurricular activities.

b. Home rooms are used for administrative and social purposes.

c. Home room representatives constitute the student council in one-third of the schools, but the majority of the schools have no organization of this type.

d. Weekly assemblies with pupil

i. While pupils assist in the management of libraries and traffic, more pupil assistance should be encouraged.

j. The most prominent aspect of the whole program is physical education. In the future, more stress should be placed upon intra-mural competition.

k. Few schools conduct excursions. Marvelous educational possibilities are not utilized in most communities.

l. There is a tendency away from expensive annuals; the stress being placed on the school paper and school notes in the local paper.

²These data are taken from the Indiana School Directory, 1928-1929. The directory for 1929-1930 does not give these data.

m. While honors and awards are given for scholastic success, the National Honor Society awards are given for scholastic success, the National Honor Society awards are given in only a few schools.

n. There is little stress upon thrift in 1930.

o. Religious activities are a minor part of most extracurricular programs.

p. Radio, visual aids, junior red cross, and intra-mural athletics receive little stress.

2. GUIDANCE AND ENCOURAGEMENT OF PARTICIPATION. Practically every school has some means of stimulating pupil participation; the chief means being personal interviews and group talks. The use of rewards is declining. Membership is voluntary.

3. LIMITATION OF PARTICIPATION. Many schools are limiting participation on the basis of scholastic ability and achievement. As yet the point system is not widely used.

4. TIME IN SCHEDULE. The tendency is to provide for a specific daily extracurricular period during the school day.

5. CREDIT FOR PARTICIPATION. There is a tendency toward credit for participation. At the present, credit

is given for activities of a curricular nature.

6. SPONSORSHIP. Every school has some sort of sponsorship. In most schools, sponsors are selected by the principals on the basis of training, interest, and personal fitness.

7. FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT. More than one-half of the schools put all the money into one fund. There is a growing demand for a treasurer or controller who will be responsible for extracurricular funds for the entire high school.

8. Available data indicate that Indiana University and Indiana State Teachers College have trained only thirty-eight principals.

In the light of data presented, northern Indiana has a much broader program of extracurricular activities than central and southern Indiana. It would be well, however, for most high school principals to consider carefully the recommendations of the Sub-Committee on Extracurricular Activities of the North Central Association* in order to evolve in each school an extracurricular program based upon fundamental educational objectives.

*Report of the Sub-Committee on Extracurricular Activities, The North Central Association Quarterly, March, 1929, Pp. 542-589.

Contribution of Research to Educational Theory and Practice

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(This is a digest of the paper given before the Graduate School of the Indiana State Teachers College, Summer, 1930.)

In the field of education, "research" and "scientific" are labels of respectability. If we wish to condemn a statement, one of the most effective ways is to show that it is not based on research or that its author has not conformed to the requirements of scientific procedure in arriving at his conclusion. On the other hand, if it can be shown that a pronouncement is a conclusion resulting from educational research or that it justifies the label of scientific, it is generally accepted as dependable. In other words, we have come to accept, at least in theory, the thesis that educational research is possible and that by means of it we are able to determine valid principles and rules and to evaluate educational procedures. Perhaps it is something of an exaggeration to say that these theses are generally accepted; but a number of recognized authorities may be quoted as having accepted them without qualification. It is true that several critics have pointed out certain limitations of educational research and that if one searches for dependable findings on a particular problem, his efforts may not prove very fruitful. But in general, we are ready, if not anxious, to turn our problems over to research workers and to accept their findings if a reasonably good case is made for them.

This situation suggests several questions: Will educational research make good? Is it likely that it will answer the various questions that are being proposed for it to study? Or will it answer only certain questions? In general, what service may we expect from educational research?

As a basis for answering these questions, we need a definition of educational research, or better, a group of criteria by which we may evaluate any given piece of work and determine whether it is or is not research. Without attempting a definition, it may be pointed out that a basic requirement of educational research is that data be secured from which dependable conclusions may be derived. In order that this may be done, the data must be appropriate, accurate, and adequate.

A problem, when defined, specifies the particular kinds of data that are needed for its solution. If the data collected are those specified either directly or implicitly by the problem, we then say that they are appropriate. In case it is not possible to secure the data specified, and it becomes necessary to employ substitute data, they may or may not be appropriate. For some purposes, substitute data are satisfactory. For example, in the physical realm, we measure temperature by measuring the height of a mercury column. The substitution of heights of a mercury

column for measures of temperature has been shown to be satisfactory. In other cases, however, substitute data are only partially satisfactory and in some cases, they are so unsatisfactory that dependable conclusions cannot be derived from them.

No argument is needed to show that data, whether they be the ones called for by the problem or substitutes for these data, must be sufficiently accurate for the particular problem being studied. In some cases, a high degree of accuracy is required. In other cases, they may contain errors either constant or variable, and yet be reasonably satisfactory. In general, however, we may say that accurate data are necessary in order to arrive at dependable conclusions.

When we wish to state a conclusion that is applicable generally, it is necessary that we secure either all of the data within the scope of the generalization or a representative sample of such data. A frequent comment upon studies in the field of education is that the conclusions are based upon too few cases. Such a criticism merely calls attention to the apparent inadequacy of the data.

When we survey the field of educational research, we find that a great variety of problems are being studied. It appears, however, that most of the problems being proposed to research workers may be classified under four heads: (1) The measurement of pupil traits and achievement. (2) Surveys of present practices and conditions. (3) The evaluation of methods of teaching and other educational procedures. (4)

Problems that ask the question, what should be.

By applying the requirements of appropriate, accurate, and adequate data to the problems under these heads, we may arrive at a tentative answer to the question, what service may we expect from educational research. Space does not permit a thorough-going consideration of the matter, but an answer to this question will be suggested by certain observations.

Test-makers have devised instruments which appear to be reasonably satisfactory for measuring certain phases of pupil achievement, but some authorities are skeptical of the possibility of measuring the more subtle outcomes of learning which we commonly designate as interests, attitudes, and ideals. In view of the accomplishments of the past, one hesitates to assert that the measurement of these more subtle outcomes is not possible by means of instruments that can be conveniently administered. It might be noted, however, that the measurement of any ability is accomplished by securing an appropriate pupil performance and describing this performance in quantitative terms. An attitude appears to be a control of conduct that influences one's behavior in a variety of situations and over a considerable period of time. It is not a temporary control of conduct, and if it is worthy of the name, attitude, it functions as a general pattern to which one's behavior conforms in situations within the range of its generalization. In view of these characteristics of an attitude, it does not appear that a satisfactory pupil performance can be se-

cured by the administration of a formal test. If this conclusion is correct, it then follows that test-makers will not succeed in producing conveniently usable instruments for measuring the outcomes of learning that are commonly designated as general patterns of conduct.

In regard to surveys of present practices and conditions, difficulties are encountered but they do not appear to be intrinsically unsurmountable provided appropriate instruments for measuring human traits and abilities are available. At the present time, many surveys are accomplished by means of the questionnaire. In view of the generally recognized limitations of this instrument for collecting data, it seems safe to say that frequently its use must be replaced by personal interview and expert observations. Consequently, it appears that many of the questions under the head of surveys of present practices and conditions cannot be answered accurately unless the research worker is prepared to substitute appropriate procedures for the questionnaire.

In dealing with questions relative to the merit of methods of teaching and other educational procedures, it is necessary to observe the Law of the Single Variable. This law specifies that all of the factors that influence pupil achievement except the one being studied must be kept constant or otherwise controlled. When inquiry is made concerning factors that influence pupil achievement, it appears that the number is fairly large. Some of these factors such as size of class, the length of recitation period, and the text book used are tangible and

usually subject to control. However, the list of factors appears to include several subtle ones such as the zeal of the teacher in carrying out the procedure, and in the case of such factors, control is difficult if not impossible. Furthermore, there is the difficulty of measuring all of the outcomes of the learning process. In view of these difficulties, it seems reasonable to say that we are not justified in expecting that research workers will eventually give us a list of best methods. They doubtless will contribute somewhat to our understanding of methods of teaching and perhaps provide us with a list of better methods, but dependable and final evaluations should not be expected.

When a research worker attempts to answer a question that asks what should be, it is necessary to make an assumption or postulate as a basis for his work. For example, there have been many analyses of newspapers, magazines, and other material that people read for the purpose of determining objectives in the field of the social studies. As a result of these investigations, we have considerable information in regard to the vocabulary and items of information that a person must possess in order to read such material intelligently. Such studies, however, are based upon the assumption that people should read the material examined. The fact that they do now read such material does not prove that they should read it. Hence, all such investigations are based upon the assumption that the reading of such material is desirable. From one point of view, we may say that such studies merely reveal to us in detail the nature of

the assumption made as a basis. They do not and obviously cannot answer the question, what should be.

Research has rendered a large service to education, and it may be expected to render more. One who examines a list of the studies reported in our educational periodicals, year-books, or bulletins during the past ten or fifteen years cannot fail to be impressed by the contributions that have been made. It appears, however, that certain limitations should be recognized. A large proportion of the questions being proposed to research workers are of such a nature that we are not justified in expecting highly dependable conclusions. In many cases, perhaps in all cases, attempts to study these questions will result in a better understanding of them and make it possible for thinkers in the field of education to formulate better principles and rules. Their conclusions, however, can hardly be labeled as scientific.

In view of the fact that this esti-

mate of educational research is conservative and possibly not in agreement with the prevailing attitude toward it, it seems appropriate to raise another question by way of conclusion. If it were possible, would it be desirable to have all of our questions in the field of education answered by research so that we would have detailed rules for all phases of educational practice? Thinking is stimulated by the difficulties and the questions that arise in our work. If we agree that it is desirable that teachers and others who fulfill responsibilities in our schools think rather than somewhat blindly follow specified rules, it follows that it would not be desirable to have all questions answered. Consequently, we should be gratified to find that educational research does possess certain limitations and that so far as we can now see teaching will continue to be a thinking operation that will offer a challenge to the best of our teachers and administrators.

TEACHER PARTICIPATION

Teacher participation is supremely important at this time. It encourages teacher growth. It commands public respect. It strengthens professional organization and keeps its program true to the central needs and ideals. It vitalizes the curriculum. It fortifies school policy. It helps the people to appreciate the immense significance of the public school service—the most gigantic and successful social achievement in the history of civilization. Just now when powerful interests—some of them well meaning—are seeking to reduce our investment in education,

the influence of the teacher is imperative.

Education is most needed in times of rapid adjustment. It helps to let in the light. Teachers know this. They see the gains in individual pupil lives. Their judgments are held true by daily association with child need and aspiration. The National Education Association seeks to magnify and exalt the teacher through the widest possible participation in professional, educational, and civic affairs—JOY ELMER MORGAN Editor, *The Journal of the National Education Association*.

TEACHERS COLLEGE JOURNAL

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INDIANA STATE CONFERENCE OF STUDENT TEACHING DECEMBER 11 AND 12, 1930

Indiana State Teachers College will be host to the Indiana State Conference of Student Teaching, December 11 and 12, 1930. This conference will be held under the auspices of the Indiana State Department of Public Instruction. The theme of the conference will be, "It is easy to have so much teaching that no learning takes place." Burton—*The Nature and Direction of Learning*.

The program for the conference follows:

Thursday—December 11

- 1:30 P. M.—Visiting local colleges—Rose to Polytechnic Institute, St.
3:30 P. M. Mary-of-the-Woods College, and Indiana State Teachers College.
4:00 P. M.—Afternoon Session.
1. Syllabi for Teacher Training Courses, H. M. Whisler, Director Teacher Training, State Department of Public Instruction, presiding. Room 22, College Training School.
2. Informal group conferences for discussion of any problem. Room 28, College Training School.
6:00 P. M.—Dinner, Elks Club.
Mrs. Oskar Duenweg, president College Training School Parent-Teach-

er Association, presiding.
Music—College Training School Pupils.

- 7:15 P. M.—Round Table Discussion. President L. N. Hines, presiding.
Fiske Allen, Director Training School, Eastern Illinois State Teachers College, conference guest.
1. Does our Indiana System emphasize student teaching at the expense of child learning?
2. What changes are needed in State regulations?
3. Outstanding elements of a student teaching Utopia.
4. Other problems to be suggested by members.

Friday—December 12

- 8:00 A. M.—Visiting Schools.
to The day will be spent in observation.
2:00 P. M. serving critic and student teaching in all grades as conducted in both the campus and city training schools.
2:30 P. M.—General Conference, Training School Auditorium. H. M. Whisler, presiding.
Dr. A. S. Barr, Professor of Education, University of Wisconsin, conference guest and advisor.
Questions suggested by the day's visitation to be asked by members.
3:30 P. M.—Group Conferences, College Training School.
High School Group—Chapel, Kathryn Kennedy, presiding.
Intermediate Group—Room 28, Gertrude Soules, presiding.
Primary Group—Room 22, Mary Reed, presiding.
Special Group—Room 24, L. M. Tilson, presiding.
5:45 P. M.—Dinner, Woodrow Wilson Junior High School Cafeteria. Music by Woodrow Wilson pupils.
7:00 P. M.—Conference, Auditorium of Woodrow Wilson Junior High School. E. E. Ramsey, presiding.
Address—"The Integration of Theory and Practice Courses in the Training of Teachers." Dr. A. S. Barr.

GENERAL INFORMATION

Transportation

Terre Haute is reached by Indiana-U. S. highways 40 and 41; by numerous bus and traction lines; and by the Pennsylvania (two divisions), Big Four (two divisions), Chicago and Eastern Illinois, and C. M. & St. P., railways.

Hotels

Deming Hotel, Terre Haute House, Filbeck Hotel, Plaza Hotel. Write these hotels for reservations.

Campus and City Training Schools

During the fall quarter most of the student teaching is done in the campus and city training schools.
(Continued on Page 56)

The Orientation Course in the College Curriculum

Hazel T. Pfennig

Assistant Professor of English
and

Joy M. Lacey

Assistant Professor of Education
Indiana State Teachers College

Introductory Statement

Certain authorities in educational experimentation consider the orientation course the most important step for the complete functioning of the curriculum. The general tendency is towards the development of courses that deal with *Contemporary Civilization*, *Reflective Thinking*, *Problems of the Day*, and the like. The liberal arts college has shown more interest in these courses than has the teachers college. The student in a teachers college needs all that a student in the liberal arts college needs and more—he needs orientation in his profession. Orientation in his case may properly mean orientation in the fields of learning, in the immediate college environment, and in his profession which is his chosen life work.

A college education today is no longer a luxury. It is fast becoming a necessity. To go to college is the popular thing to do. Many more young people are attending high school than ever before and there are more college students today than there were high school students a quarter of a century ago.

American people believe in the capacity of their children to live on a higher plane than they themselves have lived and are looking to the college to develop the capacity of their

children for this higher living. The college must be modernized if it is to meet this demand.

The college education will be valued and worth while only to the extent that it performs a certain duty, achieves definite results, and accomplishes definite purposes. A few general statements as to these aims, duties, and purposes will give meaning to the problem of orientation of college freshmen which is the topic under discussion.

"It is the purpose of the college of liberal arts to prepare its students for intelligent participation in the activities of life and for the rational enjoyment of work and leisure in a world in which they have learned to live."

"Scholastic achievement must be made a part of youth, not youth a part of a set of scholastic achievements." It is growth, not its limitations and differentiations, which should be sought for in education. The college must show students desiring a college education the fundamentals of a democratic personality.

"From the educational point of view childhood and adulthood together form one continuous development. Each stage should leave the individual best prepared to live the

¹Stowe. *Modernizing the College.*

next stage, and through this all others. Any one stage overlaps in character other stages."¹

Every child should be looked upon as a potential college student and future citizen. The unification of his purpose and activities is of prime importance. No one stage of his development should exist as an isolated unit. Any break between elementary school and high school, between high school and college, or between college and later life is inconsistent with the necessary integration which the individual requires. Adjusting the work to the various stages in such a way that they shall contribute most fully to the development of the individual is an educational requirement.

The Freshman Problem

Granted that education is a continuous development, and that everybody goes to college, what is the freshman situation as it exists in our colleges today?

"Standardization, characteristic of mass production in an industrial age, carried over into schools and colleges has resulted all too frequently in placing emphasis on the mechanism of education instead of on the individual. The adjustment difficulties which the freshman has to meet are intensified as a result of this misplaced emphasis."²

The college seems a new world of people and of things, of customs, and of ideals, and not a continuation of the old school life. The freshman must orient himself, that is, he must evaluate his own personal qualities, his past experiences, his capacities,

his attitudes, and his emotions. The social background, the educational achievements, the attitudes and interests of freshmen present no conformity. The mental ability is varied and the aptitudes widely distributed.

The great freshman mortality in many institutions is often due to lack of social and moral adjustment as well as poor preparation and low scholarship. Many are poorly prepared through no fault of their own. Many are handicapped in a financial way and must earn their way through college. Some are over-confident of their ability, and some are too dependent upon previous standing and social prestige. The freshman's ideas are often crude and his ways provincial. Although the college is not wholly responsible for this situation it presents a problem that must be faced as soon as the freshman is enrolled. It has been said that more than one-third of the students admitted to the freshman class in the American colleges leave before attaining sophomore standing, and another third drops out during the sophomore and junior years. Only about two out of every seven freshmen are graduated. The college surely can do much to save this waste.

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND. The college entrance requirements are rather flexible so the freshmen from the public high schools and preparatory schools vary in educational qualifications as the standards of the various schools vary. The grades they bring with them show little correlation with their achievement tests or later with their class standings in the college. There is great variability

¹Twenty-sixth Yearbook, Volume II.

²Doermann. Orientation of College Freshmen.

ty as to why they are in college. Some have very definite purposes in mind and choose courses wisely. Others have only a vague idea as to what they want, and still others have no plans at all—they are just going to college. In a teachers college where choice of school indicates choice of career, the last group is seldom found, but the first two are always present. To get one's bearings in a new environment, and to select courses and instructors and decide matters for one's self is a real problem of educational adjustment. Often the whole career depends upon the right attitude and approach toward these intellectual problems.

SOCIAL BACKGROUND. The freshmen come from homes that are representative of the many occupational interests—farmer, miner, merchant, and professional worker. The school is called upon to function in the capacity of the home or the community. The college life increases these social opportunities. The freshman must adjust himself to the large student body, to the smaller class groups, and to school organizations of many kinds. He must also adjust himself to life in the dormitory or rooming house, to new friends, and possibly to a stranger for a roommate.

MENTAL AND EMOTIONAL ATTITUDES. The mental and emotional attitudes and interests present the widest range of difference. In our rapidly changing civilization this is perhaps more easily understood than the other variations. As adults we are constantly changing in our ways of living and our mental outlook. "The material advance in civilization threatens to outrun our social and

moral ability to grapple with the problems."

VOCATIONAL BACKGROUND. Unless the freshman attends a professional or a technical school he has given little thought to the choice of a career. Even in the teachers college a survey of the entire field of teaching will help orient him with reference to the profession.

Although freshmen may differ in educational background, in social background, in attitudes and interests, there are a few general likenesses that have been pointed out by Doermann in his study. Freshmen are usually immature; they have only vague ideas as to the purpose of the college; they are restive under authority but not yet ready for freedom and they are not critical of themselves. They do not realize the importance of the adjustments they have already made and those that must be made in the future. They are lacking in intellectual interests and habits. The extra curriculum activities have a strong appeal for them, possibly because they offer the chance for self-expression. They seem to lack a purpose around which they can integrate college experiences.

There are many curriculum adjustments that demand immediate attention. Registration day has its problems. One is lost in the crowd. Courses must be decided upon, instructors must be chosen and class hours determined. The freshman waits in line, tries to find recitation rooms and in the rush often overlooks the required courses and the proper

*Kilpatrick. Education for a Changing Civilization.

sequence of courses. The class work itself presents many problems. The lecture method is often used. The study is unsupervised. Tests are given at irregular intervals and daily work is unchecked. Text books may or may not be used. There is a large library at his disposal but he understands little about library usage. The extra curriculum activities are inviting. How to budget his time, energy and money is an immediate problem. Truly it is a crucial time in his life when he becomes a college freshman.

The college certainly has a duty to perform in directing and guiding its freshmen in understanding themselves and their environment so that they will make choices leading to their continuous growth and development.

Methods of Solving the Problem

Several attempts have been made by colleges to aid the freshman in his adjustment. Probably the simplest of these has been printed in the bulletins and catalogues. At best these give him the specific information necessary for a wise choice of college; they acquaint the student with the college's counseling program; they develop interest in purposes of college education by relating to his immediate needs. The testing programs usually have been of a dual nature. The first tested his general intelligence and the second his achievement, often in English. After which he was placed in a group with students of similar abilities.

The lecture performance consists of lectures delivered to the entire freshman body upon the following subjects: their general reading; note-taking; practical use of books; use of

the library; explanation of the personal service bureau.

The system of advisers seemed for awhile to offer a solution to the freshman's dilemma. The freshman had a personal interview with a member of the faculty which resulted in the approval or revision of the student's course of study, but little else. For the ability to advise students intelligently is not a by-product of teaching, but a skill. There is a definite technique in counseling which few teachers possess and those who do cannot function adequately while carrying a full teaching load.

The next attempt at adjustment was the instituting of *Freshman Week*. This was more effective than the other attempts. In most colleges it consists of a lecture performance program similar to the one just mentioned, a more elaborate system of testing, a separate series of lectures on the aims and purposes of the college, a social and recreational program, and finally individual counseling. Both the faculties and student bodies feel that this week has been most helpful and has been continued where it was tested. But still the freshman adjustment was unsatisfactory. Further experimentation led to the incorporation of orientation courses into the curricula of many of our best universities and colleges. These courses vary in nature and in complexity from a single course in "How to Study" to the two-year course in "Contemporary Civilization" found in Columbia University. The avowed aim of this last course is that it is concerned with giving a preliminary notion of our present-day problems of making a

living, living together, and understanding the world.

It seems to us that the freshmen in the teachers colleges are in need of such a course that will facilitate their adjustment and broaden their vision.

The Development and Extension of Orientation Courses

Many colleges are reorganizing their freshman curricula in the light of the orientation courses just described. They are developing exploratory courses dealing with the solution of personal and social problems. There is a growing tendency on the part of colleges, teacher-training institutions, and vocational schools to accept the responsibility for helping the freshman find out for himself what he can do best.

The orientation course initiates the student at the very beginning of his college life into the whole range of human activities, as well as the specific field in which he is interested. It tends to correlate learning and life problems. It helps him to select a major interest and often to choose a career. It gives unity to the entire college course which is often lacking where the elective system prevails or where prescribed courses of study exist. It becomes the core of the whole college education and requires an analysis of life problems, the determination of aims and policies, the development of real leaders, and the simplification of the whole college curriculum.

The success of the orientation course depends as much on the quality of teaching and methods of instruction as upon the content of the course. The orientation course which

grows out of the students evaluation of self and appreciation of personal qualities leading to adjustments and readjustments is not a course that can be put into operation by regulations and administrative force. It must result from a feeling on the part of the faculty, the students, and the administrators that it is a necessary part of the college curriculum, which will enable "all the joyous and serious energies of the college freshman to develop." It must lead the student to find himself. It must help him to understand and participate in all phases of college life. It must build up a set of interests that do not belong to the present alone but to all time.

The development and extension of orientation courses tends to modernize the whole college curricula and correlate learning with life problems. All of those things which have revolutionized the elementary schools and the secondary schools to some extent are creeping up into the college. The realization that education is a continuous development strengthens the belief that the same type of instruction may be adapted to all levels of learning, if the methods are intrinsically sound and based on psychological insight into the laws of interest and development. A more deliberate use of the laws of learning in the college is necessary.

Activity is the new factor that affects both curriculum and method. Purposeful activity in a social situation under wise guidance seems to help most in meeting the demand for adjustment. Method is how to stimulate and guide this growth so that the student will be able to adjust

himself to shifting, unexpected and increasing change. It is a method of attack rather than a specific solution to life's problems that must be taught. Since we learn by doing, sufficient practice must be given in clear thinking and right feeling about economic, political, social and individual problems to bring about power in solving them.

Methods, curricula, and administration must all fit with the demands of democracy and growth. Fortunately agreement between the newer educational psychology and philosophy will further their mutual aims, which is the betterment of the social life and individual expression.

The following summarized statements include the popular conceptions of numerous writers as to what an orientation course should include and what it should do for the college freshman. The wide scope indicates the many problems of psychology, sociology, philosophy, and administration that are involved. These may serve as suggestions for the organizing of orientation courses in any college whether it is a liberal arts college, a professional school, or a school of technology. An orientation course that really functions must consider the peculiar college situation, the teachers in the school, and the student body itself. All are vitally concerned in formulating such a course, if it will give (1) a clear understanding of what going to college means with all its leads, (2) an insight into all the personal and social adjustments that are required in that particular college, (3) a feeling that success in the first year is essential to later success in college and

in life, and (4) an orientation into the world in which he is to live and work and play.

Student Considerations

The college must regard every student as a separate and distinct individual; must assume some responsibility for the student as an individual, as well as for the whole college group; should mold its plan so that the student should progressively and as quickly as possible assume responsibility for his own conduct; should encourage students to seek advice in regard to choices; should maintain an atmosphere of freedom in order to foster self-development and self discipline of students. (Doermann).

The college must guide its students through lectures, printed announcements, conferences, and personal counsel. The college must guide the student (if necessary) in how to study. It must teach him the technique of studying a text book and reference material; the use of the library, how to read effectively, how to take notes and study them, how to prepare outlines and briefs, and how to budget his time, money, and energy.

College Considerations

General orientation courses are desirable. An attempt should be made to discover the most effective modes of selecting and organizing the college activities — curriculum and extra curriculum, departmental and entire college curriculum. These general courses should relate the academic work of the college to the life of the student. Students must find in the courses materials and methods which give them a sense of

vital and necessary experience, a sense of living as well as of thinking, a satisfaction in their academic work, and a realization that work is of distinct value and importance to them.

The college curriculum must be modernized and certain courses required and others selected. The average student has too little background and discrimination to choose all his courses himself.

Departmental orientation courses benefit the student greatly. They enable students to appreciate better the advantage of a broad background before specializing. They help to round out a study in any field. They find out whether a student has a background that will enable him to continue work in a chosen field without being handicapped. They test his power in the field in question.

Personnel Methods in the College

The college must inform itself concerning the best personnel methods in regard to tests, cumulative personal charts begun in junior high school, and vocational monographs.

The college must estimate the inherent academic ability of each student in order to give sound advice as to courses and plans and choices.

The college must get information regarding the social and moral development of the student, including such points as self-reliance, dependability, willingness to cooperate and share responsibility, and ambitions to realize the best of his own possibilities and his college opportunity.

The college must secure information in regard to mental habits, such as interest in study, industry, and ability to concentrate and persevere.

The college must get information

in regard to breadth of experience, interest and aptitudes in the extra curriculum activities, and leisure time.

The college must welcome criticism by students and improve in the light of them as to methods of teaching, content of the courses, and ultimate values of the counsel.

Considerations of Methods of Instruction and Curriculum Content

Methods of instruction in the college must be improved. Teachers must be real teachers more than subject matter specialists. They must have a thorough knowledge of the human needs of young men and women and the most effective way of meeting them. The quality of teaching, especially in the freshman and sophomore classes, must be improved for that is where cultural habits and attitudes are formed. Qualifications of personality and teaching ability should receive more consideration. (Less attention should be given to academic scholarship, which may not in itself be an indication of good teaching ability.) Simply good teachers are needed for undergraduate instruction; teachers who are fond of teaching, devoted to their students and highly successful in class work. Teachers who devote their energies to teaching rather than to the production of published material to make a name for themselves and to enhance the reputation of the college should be appointed and compensated.

Teachers should utilize the scientific studies of interests and abilities of students as well as the personal charts which record the educational and social-moral achievements and

interests of students enrolled. They should try to detect authentically bright minds and help in adjustments and readjustments in the light of cumulative and comparable information and achievements and trends, while there is still hope of adjustments being successful.

Teachers should build in students the methods for attacking controversial issues and develop attitudes of openmindedness and tolerance. They should have more research work instead of lectures, more conferences instead of classes, more group discussion instead of recitations. They should experiment with reform.

The content of the college curriculum must be studied and improved from a scientific standpoint.

The dynamic materials of the curriculum (the finer appreciation, the dynamic attitudes, the crucial problems, the institutions, and the relationships of contemporary life) which are to be discovered by the scientific analysis of society must be utilized.

If our freshmen are to be orientated in any true sense of the word they must become deeply aware of the kind of a world they are living in. A study of modern life reveals three striking tendencies. There is first a changed mental attitude. It is observable in every phase of life. Modern science has brought into public consciousness a new technique—it is the testing of theory before it is accepted as having any value. This procedure gives us a substantial body of dependable thought and accompanying this is a program of change for the improvement of mankind based upon this tested thought. We

have assumed a different attitude toward all life problems. We criticize our institutions with determined ideas of change. Our poets, novelists, and playwrights objectify our problems for us in order that revision shall be speeded up. Everything is being brought to the bar for judgment—nothing is sacred. That judgment is made in the light of what these customs or institutions do to life. This gives us a plan of attack. Our whole outlook upon life is being re-shaped by this testing program.

The second tendency is "industrialism." Our freshmen need to become aware of the significance of this development of American life and its far-reaching effects. It enters into phases of his life and will continue to increase in importance rather than diminish. Inventions and discoveries will multiply. This means different modes and standards in living. Greater leisure seems imminent. With such rapid changes bearing down upon us, we must be prepared with an increasing flexibility to meet these new ways of living.

The third trend is the democratic tendency. This is a way of living that enters deeply into the problem of education. Our progress is not uniform. We are conscious of social lag. Our inventions and discoveries have given us new ways of living, but social and moral outlooks have not kept abreast. We have striking examples of that in war. The laboratories prepare means by which thousands of people may be destroyed in a few minutes—but what about the people who have the moral acumen to control such power? Not an election is held in the United States that we are not again remind-

ed of the inadequacy of the political machinery to meet social needs. Such a state of affairs will tend to grow worse unless we evolve an educational program that will take into account this increasing change. We have a feeling that democracy will succeed in proportion as it discovers a form of education which reaches the bases of our physical and social living and then makes this education accessible to all its citizens. Education is not a preparation for life, it is the process of living. The best way to prepare for any future is to live richly in the present stage. Life cannot have any one goal—it has only such ends as we set up for it ourselves. We need practice in living. We must educate for change and then this change becomes the end or goal. With this

conception we shall then teach knowledge and skills in the light of the service they will be in living. The resulting world will be made plastic in thought and effort. Educational effort along such lines will result in students possessing dynamic philosophy and we may judge these students in the light of what they are becoming. We educators face the practical orientation of the individual to his world in the struggle for value and the task of leading the individual to reflect upon the way he is going, to consider for himself the ends and values in the light of experience. Learning must result in the ability to take a philosophical attitude towards experience. This is what we mean by the orientation of college freshmen.

ENROLLMENTS IN INDIANA STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE
FOR THE SCHOOL YEAR, 1929-1930

Enrollments	Fall Term	Winter Term	Spring Term
Men	518	498	444
Women	874	849	817
Indiana	1345	1307	1220
Out-of-State	47	40	41
Vigo County	634	634	591
Rest of State	711	673	629
Out of State	47	40	41
18-25 Years of Age	1165	1165	1110
Less than 18	136	109	66
More than 18	91	82	85
Church Members	1289	1247	1171
Non-church Members	103	100	90
Total	1392	1347	1261

Smaller Classes

Just now there is a tendency in certain quarters to increase the size of classes. Many teachers are so situated that although they fully understand the evil results of too large classes they do not feel free to protest. They do not like to seem to oppose the school board or to try to get out of work which is expected of them. There is an impression in some quarters that research has shown some advantage in larger classes. This is not true. So far no studies have been made which really go to the bottom of the problem. It is not a question of how many petty inaccuracies the child learns. It is fundamentally a question of character growth, and anyone

with half an eye knows that it takes intimate personal attention to quicken the spirit and school character of young folk. The teacher must get close enough to the child to establish lines of understanding and influence. Much can be done through specialists who give their entire time to guidance, but such specialists cannot take the place of the teacher in the life of the child whose whole attitude toward learning and toward particular subjects is influenced by the sympathetic understanding which exists or fails to exist between him and his teacher.—Joy Elmer Morgan, editor *Journal of the National Education Association*.

INDIANA STATE CONFERENCE OF STUDENT TEACHING

(Continued from Page 46)

dent teaching is done in the Campus training school having grades one to twelve, and in the Deming public school, with kindergarten and grades one to eight. Some student teaching will be found in the Wiley, Garfield, and Sarah Scott Schools.

Transportation will be furnished free to these or any other city schools. Headquarters at the Campus Training School.

Dinners

Thursday—6:00 P. M., Elks Club, corner 7th and Mulberry Streets. All local members, 75c. Complimentary to visitors from other institutions. Served by the Parent-Teacher association of the College Training School.

Friday—5:45 P. M., Woodrow Wilson Junior High School cafeteria. 75c per plate. Meet at the Campus School at 5:15 P. M. Free transportation for out

of town guests. Served by Terre Haute teachers.

Reservations for the dinners should be made with Olis G. Jamison, principal of the College Training School, by Monday, December 8.

Local Transportation

Through the courtesy of the college Training School Parent-Teacher Association, the teachers in the college and public schools, and the Chamber of Commerce, cars will be at the College Training School at all times ready to take guests to any of the city schools or meeting places.

On Thursday at 1:30 P. M. cars will be ready to take guests to Rose Polytechnic or St. Mary-of-the-Woods.

The Teachers College Journal, September, 1930, has articles describing fully the student teaching program at the Indiana State Teachers College. Copies have been sent to each teacher training school in the state.

Reading Interests of Freshmen in a Teachers College

Emma Reinhardt

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Eastern Illinois State Teachers College
Charleston, Illinois

The purpose of this article is to present information concerning the reading interests of freshmen in the Eastern Illinois State Teachers College. The information is based upon replies to a list of questions given freshmen in December, 1929. Students were asked to answer the questions carefully and truthfully and to leave their papers unsigned. Replies were received from sixty-nine boys and one hundred eighty-one girls. After discarding incomplete papers there remained for consideration replies from sixty-six boys and one hundred seventy-four girls. The questions, together with summaries of the answers, follow.

Question 1. What books not required in connection with school work have you read during the past year (1929)?

The answers to this question showed the number of books read as well as the students' favorite authors. The boys read fewer books than the girls, the range for boys being from zero to fourteen with three as the median. The range for girls was from zero to twenty-seven with five as the median. Twenty-six per cent of the boys and twelve per cent of the girls read no books. The boys mentioned 132 different titles by 40 authors. The girls mentioned 704 different titles by 151 authors. Few books of non-fiction were among the number. Boys and

girls showed considerable similarity in choice of authors. A comparison of Table I and Table II which give the ten authors leading in frequency of mention by boys and by girls respectively shows that four names—Gene Stratton Porter, Zane Grey, Harold Bell Wright, and Sinclair Lewis—appear in both lists. The titles leading in frequency of mention among the boys were *Riders of the Purple Sage*, mentioned six times, and *Under the Tonto Rim*, mentioned five times. The two leading titles among the girls were *The Harvester*, given sixteen times, and *Ben Hur*, given thirteen times.

TABLE I
TEN AUTHORS LEADING IN FREQUENCY
OF MENTION BY BOYS

Author	Frequency of Mention
Zane Grey	20
Harold Bell Wright	8
Gene Stratton Porter	7
Shakespeare	7
O. Henry	7
Dickens	5
Edgar Rice Burroughs	5
Sinclair Lewis	5
Conan Doyle	4
McCutcheon	4

TABLE II
TEN AUTHORS LEADING IN FREQUENCY
OF MENTION BY GIRLS

Author	Frequency of Mention
Gene Stratton Porter	57
Temple Bailey	35
Zane Grey	31
Harold Bell Wright	30
Norris	23
Sinclair Lewis	21
Churchill	16
Rinehart	16
Galsworthy	15
Tarkington	15

Question 2. Which one of the fol-

lowing types of books do you like best—love stories, adventure, detective, history, nature, travel, biography? (If you prefer a type not included in this list, mention it.)

It will be noted from Table III and Table IV that the boys preferred books dealing with adventure, while the girls preferred love stories.

TABLE III
TYPES OF BOOKS PREFERRED BY BOYS

Type of Book	Per Cent of Boys Preferring Each Type	Rank Among Boys
Adventure	38	1
History	23	2
Detective	12	3
Nature	11	4
Biography	9	5
Love stories	6	6
Travel	1	7

TABLE IV
TYPES OF BOOKS PREFERRED BY GIRLS

Type of Book	Per Cent of Girls Preferring Each Type	Rank Among Girls
Adventure	19	3
History	22	2
Detective	11	5
Nature	15	4
Biography	1	7
Love Stories	23	1
Travel	9	6

Question 3. What magazines not required in connection with school work have you read regularly during the past year (1929)?

Boys and girls read approximately the same number of magazines regularly, the range in each case being from zero to ten and the median three. Ten per cent of the boys and four per cent of the girls read no magazines regularly. The total number of different magazines listed by boys was fifty-eight. The total number of different magazines listed by girls was eighty-two. Table V and Table VI give the fifteen magazines leading in frequency of mention as regular reading by boys and girls re-

spectively. *The American Magazine* was the most popular with both boys and girls.

TABLE V
FIFTEEN MAGAZINES LEADING IN FREQUENCY OF MENTION AS REGULAR READING OF BOYS

Magazine	Frequency of Mention
American Magazine	15
Saturday Evening Post	14
Collier's	12
Liberty	11
Literary Digest	11
Prairie Farmer	11
Country Gentleman	8
Popular Science	8
Pathfinder	6
Popular Mechanics	5
American Boy	5
College Humor	3
World's Work	3
Cosmopolitan	3
McCall's	3

TABLE VI
FIFTEEN MAGAZINES LEADING IN FREQUENCY OF MENTION AS REGULAR READING OF GIRLS

Magazine	Frequency of Mention
American Magazine	77
McCall's	46
Woman's Home Companion	46
Good Housekeeping	42
Ladies Home Journal	42
Pathfinder	29
Literary Digest	28
Saturday Evening Post	27
Pictorial Review	24
Cosmopolitan	23
Collier's	23
Delineator	20
Country Gentleman	19
Liberty	18
Woman's World	17

Question 4. What magazines not required in connection with school work have you read occasionally during the past year (1929)?

The number of magazines boys mentioned as occasional reading ranged from zero to seven with three as the median. The number mentioned by girls ranged from zero to fourteen with three as the median. Three per cent of the boys and two per cent of the girls stated that they did not read any magazines occasionally. Several students read no magazines during 1929 as their replies to both the third and

the fourth questions were "None." The total number of different magazines listed by boys was 80 and by girls, 119. Table VII and Table VIII give the fifteen magazines leading in frequency of mention as occasional reading by boys and girls respectively. As in the case of magazines read regularly, *The American Magazine* was the favorite of both boys and girls.

TABLE VII

FIFTEEN MAGAZINES LEADING IN FREQUENCY OF MENTION AS OCCASIONAL READING OF BOYS

Magazine	Frequency of Mention
American Magazine	25
Literary Digest	13
Saturday Evening Post	11
Collier's	9
Popular Science	7
American Boy	7
Atlantic Monthly	6
Harpers	6
National Geographic	5
Prairie Farmer	5
True Story	5
Liberty	5
Pathfinder	5
Life	4
Cosmopolitan	4

TABLE VIII

FIFTEEN MAGAZINES LEADING IN FREQUENCY OF MENTION AS OCCASIONAL READING OF GIRLS

Magazine	Frequency of Mention
American Magazine	44
Atlantic Monthly	38
Good Housekeeping	35
Harpers	29
Literary Digest	28
Liberty	28
Ladies Home Journal	26
Saturday Evening Post	25
Woman's Home Companion	24
McCall's	22
Pictorial Review	22
Life	19
Collier's	19
Delineator	16
Cosmopolitan	15

Question 5. Do you read a daily newspaper regularly? If so, what newspaper (or newspapers) do you read?

Seventy-eight per cent of the boys and sixty-one per cent of the girls stated that they read a daily newspaper regularly. The majority of

them, sixty-nine per cent of the boys and seventy-three per cent of the girls, read only one newspaper. As will be seen from Table IX, a local paper, *The Charleston Courier*, led in frequency of mention.

TABLE IX

THREE NEWSPAPERS LEADING IN FREQUENCY OF MENTION AS REGULAR READING OF STUDENTS

Newspaper	Frequency of Mention	
	Boys	Girls
Charleston Courier	20	32
Chicago Tribune	15	31
Decatur Review	14	15

Question 6. Do you read a daily newspaper occasionally? If so, what newspaper (or newspapers) do you read?

Ninety-nine per cent of the boys and ninety-four per cent of the girls stated that they read a daily newspaper occasionally. All of the students who did not read a newspaper regularly were included in this number. Sixty per cent of the boys and fifty-four per cent of the girls listed only one newspaper as their occasional reading. It will be noted from Table X that the *Chicago Tribune* led in frequency of mention.

TABLE X

THREE NEWSPAPERS LEADING IN FREQUENCY OF MENTION AS OCCASIONAL READING OF STUDENTS

Newspaper	Frequency of Mention	
	Boys	Girls
Chicago Tribune	33	72
St. Louis Globe Democrat	8	32
Charleston Courier	7	31

Question 7. What part of a daily newspaper do you usually read first? Second? Third?

The three items that led in frequency of mention to each part of Question 7 by boys and by girls are

given in Table XI and Table XII respectively. Among the boys sports led as the part of the paper usually read first and second, while the comics led as the part read third. Among the girls the comics stood first in each of the three lists.

TABLE XI
PARTS OF NEWSPAPERS PREFERRED
BY BOYS

First	Frequency
Sports	24
Front page	16
Comics	10
Second	Frequency
Sports	18
Comics	17
Front page	11
Third	Frequency
Comics	16
Front page	11
Editorials	10

TABLE XII
PARTS OF NEWSPAPERS PREFERRED BY
GIRLS

First	Frequency
Comics	51
Front Page	33
Headlines	21
Second	Frequency
Comics	46
Front page	28
Sports	19
Third	Frequency
Comics	23
Sports	22
Front page	21

Question 8. What magazines are subscribed for in your home?

The number of magazines subscribed for in the boys' homes ranged from zero to ten with three as the median, while in the girls' homes the number ranged from zero to twelve with five as the median. Six per cent of the boys and two per cent of the girls stated that no magazines were subscribed for in their homes. The total number of different magazines mentioned by the boys was 76 and by

the girls, 121. Table XIII and Table XIV show the fifteen magazines leading in frequency of mention among the boys and the girls respectively. *The American Magazine* led in frequency of mention by both boys and girls.

TABLE XIII
FIFTEEN MAGAZINES LEADING IN FREQUENCY OF MENTION AS BEING SUBSCRIBED FOR IN THE HOMES OF BOYS

Magazine	Frequency of Mention
American Magazine	19
Prairie Farmer	18
Woman's Home Companion	15
Country Gentleman	13
Ladies Home Journal	13
Saturday Evening Post	11
Literary Digest	10
Pathfinder	10
Collier's	8
Good Housekeeping	7
Illinois Farmer	7
Farm and Fireside	6
McCall's	6
Better Homes and Gardens	5
Woman's World	5

TABLE XIV
FIFTEEN MAGAZINES LEADING IN FREQUENCY OF MENTION AS BEING SUBSCRIBED FOR IN THE HOMES OF GIRLS

Magazine	Frequency of Mention
American Magazine	62
McCall's	51
Prairie Farmer	51
Woman's Home Companion	50
Ladies Home Journal	45
Good Housekeeping	35
Pathfinder	32
Literary Digest	28
Woman's World	28
Saturday Evening Post	27
Country Gentleman	26
Delineator	23
American Boy	20
Pictorial Review	20
Farm and Fireside	18

Question 9. What newspapers are subscribed for in your home?

Among both boys and girls the number of newspapers subscribed for in their homes ranged from zero to five with two as the median. Weekly and semi-weekly newspapers as well as daily newspapers were included. Eight per cent of the boys and one per cent of the girls stated that no newspapers were taken in their

(Continued on Page 63)

A Study of Two Batteries of Physical Education Performance Tests for College Men

John Yamamoto, Linwood Brown, and Harry Tenwolde
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San Diego, California

This report presents data concerning the batteries of physical education performance tests which have been developed and used by F. W. Cozens of the University of California at Los Angeles and by C. E. Peterson of the San Diego State Teachers College. The data were collected under the direction of C. E. Peterson in the physical education classes taught in the San Diego State Teachers College during the second semester of 1928-1929; the report was prepared under the direction of M. E. Broom during the first semester of the school year, 1929-1930.

Essentially this study resolves itself into a consideration of the validity of the two batteries of tests, with the utility of the tests and their diagnostic value in physical education also items of interest. Validity has been defined as the correspondence between the ability measured by the test and the same ability as otherwise objectively defined and measured. "When a test really measures what it purports to measure and consistently measures this same something throughout the entire range of the test, it is a valid test." In a battery of tests in any subject, then, we should anticipate reasonably low, but positive, correlation between any two sub-tests. It should be kept in mind

that "intercorrelation between the various sub-parts of a battery of tests should not be too extreme in either direction. If the correlation between any two parts is extremely high, it is probably true that they are both measuring practically the same thing, and hence one should be discarded. If they are very poorly correlated, they tend to neutralize each other and lessen the general value of the test" battery. Similarly, the correlation between any sub-test and the total scores yielded by the battery of tests should be higher than that between any other sub-part of the battery with the given sub-test, since the given sub-test contributes to the summing up of the total score and introduces a factor of self correlation. This may be a material factor in studies of batteries of tests including limited numbers of sub-parts.

The battery of tests devised by Cozens includes the following performance tests: 440 yard dash, dips, football punt, dive, baseball throw, dodge run, and standing broad jump—a total of seven tests. The battery of tests devised by Peterson includes five performance tests: 100 yard dash, rope climb, running broad jump, fence vault, and high jump.

In order to reduce the performance

²McCall, W. A. *How to Measure in Education*. New York: The Macmillan Company. 1923. P. 195.

³Baker, H. J. *Manual of Direction, Detroit Advanced Intelligence Test*. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company. 1924. P. 16.

records of the subjects who took the different performance tests in each battery to comparable scales, the writers used standard scores. By reducing each of the ten standard deviation units along the baseline of the normal curve of frequency into ten sub-parts each, a scale of one hun-

that the standard deviation was one foot and eight inches. A subject whose jump was fifteen feet ten and one-half inches would fall in the ninth division below the mean and his standard score would be forty-one. Placing all the performance records of all the subjects in terms

TABLE I

MEASURES OF RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE PAIRED SERIES OF SCORES YIELDED BY THE SUB-TESTS AND BY THE TOTAL BATTERY OF TESTS DEVISED BY COZENS, 152 CASES

	Dips	Foot- ball Punt	Dive	Base- ball Throw	Stand- ing Broad Jump	Dodge Run	Total
440 yard dash	.59	.08	.05	.28	.27	.13	.53
Dips		.003	.57	.02	.42	.17	.48
Football punt			.25	.51	.34	.21	.46
Dive				.24	.32	.27	.65
Baseball throw					.66	.03	.77
Standing broad jump						.26	.59
Dodge run							.11

The probable errors vary between .02 and .05.

dred equal divisions was secured, numbered from zero to one hundred (with fifty at the mean). Let us assume that the mean score for the 440 yard dash in the Cozens battery was sixty seconds, and that the standard deviation describing the frequency distribution was eight seconds. A subject whose time for the 440 yard dash was fifty-five and two-

of standard scores was necessary in order to allow correlation between each sub-part in each battery with the total score yielded by the battery.

This battery of tests meets quite well the criteria concerning values of intercorrelations set up earlier in this report. There are some exceptions, of course, as, for example, the correlation coefficient for paired

TABLE II

MEASURES OF RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE PAIRED SERIES OF SCORES YIELDED BY THE SUB-TESTS AND BY THE TOTAL BATTERY OF TESTS DEVISED BY PETERSON, 135 CASES

	Rope Climb	Run- ning Broad Jump	Fence Vault	Run- ning High Jump	Total
100 yard dash	.54	.50	.34	.45	.77
Rope climb		.40	.33	.53	.42
Running broad jump			.42	.60	.95
Fence vault				.13	.54
Running high jump					.66

The probable errors vary between .01 and .06.

tenths seconds would be placed in the fifth unit distance above the mean. His standard score, then, would be fifty-five. Similarly, let us assume that the mean score for the running broad jump in the Peterson battery was seventeen feet four inches, and

scores on the 440 yard dash and the dips, which is higher than that of either scores distribution paired with the total scores.

It seems that on the whole this battery satisfies the criteria as to validity in terms of intercorrelations quite

as well as that dealt with earlier in the report. There are fewer exceptions to the "rules" set up, but, on the other hand, the intercorrelations are higher in the main.

One hundred and seven of the subjects were given both batteries of tests. The coefficient of correlation between the paired series of total scores yielded by the two batteries was .71 (probable error, .03). The two batteries, then, validate each other quite well.

From the standpoint of utility, the Peterson battery is perhaps better in normal situations involving groups

of students who have not had gymnastic drills. The Cozens battery requires a little more equipment than that devised by Peterson, but it includes one test, the dive, which is dangerous for unpracticed students, and a second, the 440 yard dash, which may be too hard for men not in condition for exacting exercise. The Cozens battery is perhaps slightly more diagnostic than the shorter battery, but in most situations the writers would prefer the Peterson battery of performance tests rather than the Cozens battery.

READING INTERESTS OF FRESHMEN IN A TEACHERS COLLEGE

(Continued from Page 60)

homes. Table XV and Table XVI give the three newspapers leading in frequency of mention among the boys and girls respectively. The *Charleston Courier* led in frequency of mention by the boys and the *Chicago Tribune* led in frequency of mention by the girls.

TABLE XV
THREE NEWSPAPERS LEADING IN FREQUENCY OF MENTION AS BEING SUBSCRIBED FOR IN HOMES OF BOYS

Newspaper	Frequency of Mention
Charleston Courier	15
Decatur Review	14
Chicago Tribune	13

TABLE XVI
THREE NEWSPAPERS LEADING IN FREQUENCY OF MENTION AS BEING SUBSCRIBED FOR IN HOMES OF GIRLS

Newspaper	Frequency of Mention
Chicago Tribune	41
Charleston Courier	27
Decatur Herald	25

Concluding Statements

The data presented in this article indicate the amount and the char-

acter of the reading of 240 freshmen in the Eastern Illinois State Teachers College.

AMOUNT OF READING. Many of the freshmen did very little reading during 1929. Aside from reading connected with school work, more than one-sixth of them read no books; one-seventeenth read no magazines regularly, and some of this number did not even read magazines occasionally; one-third did not read a daily newspaper regularly. The median number of books read by boys was three and by girls, five. The median number of magazines read regularly by boys and by girls was three, as was also the median number of magazines read occasionally. Most of the students who read a daily newspaper regularly read only one paper; many, however, also read another paper occasionally.

CHARACTER OF READING. The character of the material that the students read was only fair. Their

exclusively to light fiction. They read few magazines generally regarded as having high literary value. Women's magazines and farm magazines comprised a large share of their reading. The most undesirable magazines of the cheap, sensational type were not frequently mentioned. So far as newspaper reading was concerned, students seemed especially in-choice of books was limited almost

terested in the sport news and in the comic strips. Probably most of the students gave more attention to local news than to national and international news. Although a number of students mentioned the front page as the part of the newspaper that they read either second or third, the front page of many of the local papers that they listed is devoted chiefly to local affairs.

Around The Reading Table

Educational Measurement in the Elementary Grades by I. N. Madsen, director of the department of tests and measurements, State Normal School, Lewiston, Idaho. (Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company, 1930. Pp. x-294.)

There are many books on measurement but few of them are devoted entirely to measurement in the elementary grades. Teachers will welcome this new text because it is particularly adapted to the teacher's work and gives assistance where it is most needed.

Many texts in measurement are chiefly descriptions of standardized tests with occasionally a chapter on theory or statistics. Of the eleven chapters in this text two are devoted to intelligence and its measurement and two to tests of school achievement. The tests selected for description are well chosen. The other seven chapters deal with individual differences, statistical methods, interpretations and uses of tests, and the improvement of the teacher's own tests. The treatment throughout is practical, interesting, and clear. A chapter on graphic methods would have added to the value of the book but on the whole it would seem to be a valuable addition to our list of texts on measurements.

—E. L. Abell
Professor of Education.

Educational Measurement in High School by C. W. Odell, associate professor, College of Education, University of Illinois. (New York: The Century Company, 1930. Pp. xiv, 641.)

To the expressions "educational measurement" and "educational tests" the author has given a very wide interpretation; he uses them as referring, not only to tests of subject-matter, but also to tests of intelligence, personality, habits, et cetera. Thus this book embraces the entire field of measurement.

The author proceeds on the assumption that pupils' marks, grades, or scores are of value, and that they are of interest not alone to the pupil and his parents, but to the entire public; that therefore the question of the system of measurement used in securing these grades is of general concern and cannot be sidestepped as an issue. He takes the position that education will progress as a science in the degree that its measurement becomes exact.

The major portion of the book is given over to a description of the different tests available in the various high school subjects. It tells briefly how the tests were constructed, states what they measure, gives the usual reliability figures, and the time required, and in some cases compares the tests with others in the same field. This is a most complete list of the best tests available to date and the work gives evidence of giving the

critical and reliable information that the high school teacher will need. Only as tests continue to multiply in number will this part of the book become obsolete.

The chapter on the criteria for the selection of tests is probably the best in the book. Other sections that should prove very valuable to the teacher as well as the student are those dealing with scores, norms, standards, school marks, classification, promotion, prognosis, and guidance.

The book promises to fill a long-felt need for such a text on the secondary level.

—Paul Gordon Silas
Instructor in Education.

The Type of High School Curriculum Which Gives the Best Preparation for College by James Anderson Yates, head of department of chemical and physical sciences, Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kansas. University of Kentucky, Lexington: Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Volume II, Number 1. Pp. 105.

This is a careful scientific analysis of the question of the type of high school curriculum which gives the best preparation for college. The analysis was made by comparing the high school marks and the college marks of graduates of two classes from the University of Kentucky, one class from Indiana University, and one class from the University of Cincinnati. (All the students used in the study had done their four years of college work in the school from which they received their degrees.) "This study does not find sufficient facts to justify colleges in prescribing certain subjects for college admission. However, the facts found do warrant colleges in demanding a high school curriculum well done."

Analysis and Evaluation of the Learning Situation in a Classroom by David H. Pierce, New York University, and Council Dean, Mount Vernon, New York, public schools. (D. H. Pierce, New York University, Washington Square East, New York City.)

A reproduction of the score card devised by Dr. Pierce and Mr. Dean for the analysis and evaluation of the learning situation in a classroom with the manual for the use of the score card. It is an interesting card for evaluating the total learning situation of teachers by their students.

Practical Statistics for Teachers by Marion E. MacDonald, department of education, Jamaica Training School for Teachers, New York City. (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930. Pp. ix, 176.)

This book is essentially a work book with the purpose of developing skill in statistical computations. It is a good manual for the classroom teacher who wishes to study her own problems.

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